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AUTHOR Poignant, Raymond
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ABSTRACT

In recent years there has been an unprecedented development of educational systems in developing countries. However, analysis of educational and training systems in developing countries shows serious inadequacies, imbalances, and inadaptations. Thus, the remarkable quantitative expansion of educational systems has not been a satisfactory solution to the problems that face developing countries. According to data published by the Development Aid Committee (DAC) of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, total net public and private assistance in 1968 for all DAC countries was 0.77 percent of gross national product. Altogether, assistance accounts for about 8 percent of total educational expenditures in developing countries. Obviously, any serious study of educational policies can be worthwhile only if it is based on a preliminary study of the objectives and means of promoting economic and social development. If UNESCO could take full responsibility for the technical tasks within its competence in the elaboration of educational development policies, it would help coordinate and give direction to the action of all donor countries. (Author/JG)

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The Fundamentals of Educational Planning: Lecture - Discussion Series

No. 52 EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES DURING THE FIRST UN DEVELOPMENT DECADE: A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF INTERNATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION

by Raymond Poignant

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EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES DURING THE FIRST UN DEVELOPMENT DECADE: A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE EXPERIENCES OF INTERNATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION

Outline of the lecture given by

Raymond Poignant, Director
International Institute for Educational Planning

at the European Regional Conference
of the Society for International Development
held in Cologne, 4-6 May 1970

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INTRODUCTION

In conjunction with the opening of the Second United Nations Development Decade, all international organizations are currently assessing the evolution of their development aid activities. Already, two major reports have been issued:

(i) the Jackson report(1), prepared for UNDP, on the capacity of the UN system for aid to development,

(ii) the report of the Pearson Commission(2), prepared for the World Bank, which formulates recommendations with regard to both multilateral and bilateral aid.

At the same time, all the important donor nations are looking into the aims, methods and efficiency of their programmes.

This European Conference which deals with one of the major aspects of aid to development is thus particularly opportune. My introductory lecture is not intended to cover all aspects of the problem and the views expressed here are those for which the author takes full responsibility.

PART I - THE DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES SINCE 1960 AND THE DEGREE TO WHICH PROBLEMS HAVE BEEN EITHER BADLY SOLVED OR LEFT UNSOLVED

A. Quantitative Growth of educational systems since 1960

With the First United Nations Development Decade there has been a general effort aimed at linking the expansion of the educational systems of Member States to the objectives of economic growth and social progress, as defined by the General Assembly of the United Nations.

Unesco, in its own field, has taken a number of steps towards helping the Member States to formulate their educational development objectives during this Decade, e.g.:

(i) the Karachi plan (January 1960),

(ii) the Addis-Ababa plan (May 1961),

(iii) the Santiago plan (March 1962).

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(1) R.G.A. Jackson, A Study of the United Nations Development System (in 2 vols.), Geneva, United Nations, 1969.

(2) Lester B. Pearson (Chairman of Commission), Partners in Development, New York, Praeger Publishers Inc., 1969.

Moreover, decolonisation has proved to be an extremely favourable factor in making the newly independent States fully aware of the importance of this problem.

As a result, in view of the international financial assistance to developing countries (amounting to approximately 15 per cent of the total expenditure by these countries on education in 1967) there has been an unprecedented development of educational systems in developing countries. Table 1 shows the evolution of enrolments by educational levels and by main regions of the world between the years 1960/61 and 1966/67, the latter being the latest figures for these regions.(1)

As far as industrialized regions are concerned (North America, Western Europe, U.S.S.R., Japan, Australia, etc.) the increase in enrolments is relatively low at the first level(2), whereas it has remained very high in the second and third levels.

In developing countries (in Africa, Latin America, Asia, etc.) there is a great expansion at all levels of education; the overall rates of growth recorded during this short period of six years in these countries (Africa +45 per cent, Latin America +45 per cent, Asia +42 per cent) are higher than the average world growth (+32 per cent).

B. <u>The current different rates of growth in educational development between the main regions of the world</u>

In spite of this relative acceleration, developing countries (as outlined in Tables 2 and 3) still lag considerably behind when compared to industrialized countries.

Table 2 shows the evolution of ratio between school-age population and the total population in different regions of the world. Table 3 sets out the comparative enrolment rates at first and second levels in the same main regions of the world.

It is well worth noticing the quantitative inadequacy of primary education in Africa (40 per cent), in Asia (55 per cent) and even in Latin America (75 per cent) and, since 1960, the increase in numbers of the corresponding age groups has resulted in the increase, in absolute terms, of illiterates.

C. <u>The degree to which problems have either been badly solved or remain unsolved in developing countries</u>

The relative lateness in the growth of enrolment rates is only one aspect of the general backward state of the economic and social development of these countries.

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(1) See also the Pearson Report, pp. 41-43 for the period 1950-65.

(2) Because of universal primary education, the variations result from the evolution of the birth rate; consequently they are sometimes negative.

Table 1. Evolution of enrolments by educational levels and by main regions of the world (1960/61 and 1966/67)

Main regions(1)	Number of pupils (in thousands) 1960/61 1st level (2)	2nd level (3)	3rd level (4)	Total (5)	1966/67 1st level (2)	2nd level (3)	3rd level (4)	Total (5)	Percentage of increase 1960/61-1966/67 1st level (2)	2nd level (3)	3rd level (4)	Total
World	248 486	63 927	11 174	323 587	311 700	96 713	19 992	428 405	+25	+51	+79	+32
Africa	18 931	2 115	192	21 238	26 748	3 893	334	30 975	+41	+84	+73	+45
America comprising:	60 810	15 942	4 292	80 144	70 259	26 333	7 704	104 286	+15	+75	+79	+30
North America	33 837	11 157	3 725	48 719	33 606	13 855	6 726	59 187	- 1	+69	+81	+23
Latin America	26 973	3 885	567	31 425	36 653	7 468	978	45 099	+36	+94	+72	+45
Asia(6) comprising:	87 236	21 325	2 131	110 691	121 516	32 105	4 181	157 802	+39	+52	+95	+42
Japan	12 591	9 139	699	22 430	9 548	10 684	1 270	21 502	-24	+16	+82	- 4
Europe	49 106	19 285	2 061	70 453	51 400	25 034	3 442	79 876	+ 4	+31	+66	+13
Oceania	2 403	801	102	3 306	2 719	1 178	208	4 105	+13	+47	+103	+24
U.S.S.R.(7)	30 000	5 359	2 396	37 755	39 058	8 180	4 123	51 361	+30	+53	+72	+36

(1) See list on page 4.

(2) Not including pre-school education.

(3) General education, professional and teacher training.

(4) Universities and other higher education institutions.

(5) Not including pre-school education, special education and adult education.

(6) Not including China (mainland), North Korea and North Viet-Nam.

(7) General education at the first and second levels, comprising eleven grades, was divided for 1960 into grades I-VII for first level and grades VIII-XI for second level. In 1966 grades I-VIII are considered first level and grades IX-XI second level.

Source: Office of Statistics, Unesco.

1. The major areas shown in this table are constituted as follows:

Africa

Western Africa
Nigeria, Ghana, Upper Volta, Mali, Ivory Coast, Senegal, Guinea, Niger, Sierra Leone, Dahomey, Togo, Liberia, Mauritania, Portuguese Guinea, Gambia, Cape Verde Islands, St. Helena.

Eastern Africa
Ethiopia, United Republic of Tanzania, Malawi, Kenya, Uganda, Mozambique, Madagascar, Southern Rhodesia, Rwanda, Burundi, Somalia, Mauritius, Reunion, Zambia, Comoro Islands, French Territory of the Afars and the Issas, Seychelles.

Middle Africa
Congo (Democratic Republic), Angola, Cameroon, Chad, Central African Republic, Congo (Brazzaville), Gabon, Equatorial Guinea, São Tomé and Principe.

Northern Africa
United Arab Republic, Sudan, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Libya, Ifni, Spanish Sahara.

Southern Africa
South Africa, Lesotho, Namibia, Botswana, Swaziland.

Northern America
United States of America, Canada, Bermuda, Greenland, St. Pierre and Miquelon.

Latin America

Tropical South America
Brazil, Colombia, Peru, Venezuela, Ecuador, Bolivia, Guyana, Surinam, French Guiana.

Middle America (mainland)
Mexico, Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, British Honduras, Canal Zone.

Temperate South America
Argentina, Chile, Uruguay, Paraguay, Falkland Islands.

Caribbean
Cuba, Haiti, Dominican Republic, Puerto Rico, Jamaica, Trinidad and Tobago, Antigua, Dominica, Grenada, Montserrat, St. Kitts-Nevis and Anguilla, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Martinique, Guadeloupe, Barbados, Netherlands Antilles, Bahama Islands, Virgin Islands (U.S.A.), Virgin Islands (U.K.), Cayman Islands, Turks and Caicos Islands.

East Asia

Mainland
China (mainland), Hong Kong, Mongolia, Macao.

Japan
Japan.

Other East Asia
Korea (Republic of), Korea (North), China (Taiwan), Ryukyu Islands.

South Asia

Middle South Asia
India, Pakistan, Iran, Afghanistan, Ceylon, Nepal, Bhutan, Sikkim, Maldive Islands.

South-East Asia
Indonesia, Viet-Nam (Republic of), Viet-Nam (North), Philippines, Thailand, Burma, Malaysia, Cambodia, Brunei, Laos, Singapore, Portuguese Timor.

South-West Asia
Turkey, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, Syria, Yemen, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, People's Republic of Southern Yemen, Cyprus, Muscat and Oman, Kuwait, Bahrain, Trucial Oman, Qatar.

Europe

Western Europe
Germany (Federal Republic of), France, Netherlands, Belgium, Austria, Switzerland, West Berlin, Luxembourg, Monaco, Liechtenstein.

Southern Europe
Italy, Spain, Yugoslavia, Portugal, Greece, Albania, Malta, Gibraltar, San Marino, Andorra, Holy See.

Eastern Europe
Poland, Romania, Eastern Germany, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Bulgaria.

Northern Europe
United Kingdom, Sweden, Denmark, Finland, Norway, Ireland, Iceland, Faeroe Islands.

Oceania

Australia and New Zealand
Australia, New Zealand.

Melanesia
New Guinea, Papua, British Solomon Islands, New Caledonia, New Hebrides, Norfolk Island.

Polynesia and Micronesia
Fiji Islands, Western Samoa, Pacific Islands, French Polynesia, Guam, Tonga, Gilbert and Ellice Islands, American Samoa, Cook Islands, Niue, Nauru, Tokelau Islands.

U.S.S.R.

Table 2. Evolution of ratio between the total school-going population and the total population in different regions of the world (1960/61 and 1966/67)(1)

Main regions	Percentage of enrolments as a ratio of the total population			
	1960/61		1966/67	
	Total enrolments	Proportion of girls	Total enrolments	Proportion of girls
	%	%	%	%
World	14.0	6.1	16.4	7.1
Africa	7.8	2.8	9.7	3.6
America	19.5	9.4	22.3	10.7
comprising: North America	24.5	11.8	27.3	13.1
Latin America	14.8	7.1	18.0	8.7
Asia	11.4	4.2	14.0	5.3
Europe	16.6	7.8	17.8	8.4
Oceania	20.7	9.5	23.1	10.3
U.S.S.R.	17.6	?	22.0	10.8

(1) Source: Introduction to Volume V of 'World Survey of Education', Unesco (to be published).

Table 3. Comparative enrolment rates at first and second levels (1967/68)

Main regions	Enrolment rates of primary school-age population(1)	Enrolment rates of secondary school-age population(1)	Enrolment rates of primary and secondary school-age population(1)
	%	%	%
World	68	40	56
Africa	40	15	28
North America	98	92	96
Latin America	75	35	55
Asia(2)	55	30	45
Europe and U.S.S.R.	97	65	85
Oceania	95	30	67
(Arab countries)	(50)	(25)	(38)

(1) Regardless of the school they attend.

(2) Not including China (mainland), North Korea and North Viet-Nam.

Source: Estimates of the Office of Statistics, Unesco.

The analysis of educational and training systems in developing countries shows serious inadequacies, imbalances and inadaptations which deserve careful attention. The most outstanding are: (i) the poor quality and inefficiency of primary education(1) and, too often, of secondary education; (ii) the irrelevance of the programmes and methods of general education to the human, social and economic environment, especially in rural areas; (iii) the difficulty found by young graduates (even properly trained) in being fully integrated in the traditional social and economic environment which shows no desire to receive them; (iv) the low degree of professional and technical training for the young (10 per cent of the enrolments in secondary education) and the irrelevance of such training to the countries concerned; (v) the dramatic inadequacy of adult education, especially in the rural areas. Such inadequacy paralyses the evolution of agricultural activities and of over-all economic development(2); (vi) at the level of higher education, due to a lack of evaluation and guidance, training is irrelevant to the labour market and creation of new jobs (this is the main cause of intellectual unemployment and the brain drain); (vii) on the whole, relatively uneconomic management of the ever-increasing resources which these countries devote to education.

Of course, one should not have a too pessimistic view of the situation; a long series of local successes could be cited but they would by no means contradict the foregoing remarks.

Thus, the remarkable quantitative expansion of the educational systems illustrated in Table 1 has not been a satisfactory solution to the problems which face the developing countries.

PART II - ORIGIN, RELATIVE IMPORTANCE AND GEOGRAPHICAL DISTRIBUTION OF INTERNATIONAL AID TO EDUCATION

Aid to education is found within the more general aid to development. Its importance may be outlined.

A. International aid to development

(a) Origin and size of international aid to development in 1967

According to data published by the Development Aid Committee (DAC) of the OECD(3) the total net resources given by donor countries to developing countries were made up as follows:

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(1) Some graduates of which quickly lapse into illiteracy.

(2) See FAO, Provisional World Plan for Agricultural Development (Volume III), Rome, 8-27 November, 1969 (C69/4, processed).

(3) Source: OECD, Observer, No. 36, October, 1968.

I.	Countries of DAC	
	Private bilateral assistance	$ 4,024 million
	Public bilateral assistance	$ 6,218 "
	Multilateral assistance	$ 1,073 "
II.	Socialist and other countries	
	Bilateral assistance	$ 350 "
	Multilateral assistance	$ 10 "
	Grand total	$11,675 million

This sum of $11,675 million was thus made up of $10,592 million of bilateral assistance and $1,083 million of multilateral assistance. $7,651 million (66 per cent) of this grand total came from public assistance and $4,024 (34 per cent) came from private assistance.

(b) Efforts made by donor countries

For all the DAC countries, the total of net public and private assistance in 1968 was 0.77 per cent of GNP. This amount included 0.66 per cent for the United States, 1.26 per cent for the Federal Republic of Germany, 1.17 per cent for France, 0.75 per cent for the United Kingdom, etc.(1)

The application of the proposals made for the Second United Nations Development Decade - that is fixing the minimum assistance at 1 per cent of GNP would then increase the total assistance by 25-30 per cent.

(c) The relative size of international assistance from the point of view of developing countries

The statistics of OECD(2) illustrate the size of this assistance in relation to the developing countries' own resources.

In 1966-68, the annual revenues per head of population were, on average, as follows:

- public bilateral assistance $3.68
- multilateral assistance $0.55

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(1) Source: OECD, Development Assistance, 1969 Review, Paris, 1969, Annex Table No. 8, p. 306.

(2) Source: OECD, ibid, Annex Table No. 17, p. 315.

In 1966, on average, total public assistance represented about 2.70 per cent of GDP in developing countries. If private assistance is included the figure would be about 3.50 per cent.

Obviously, the variations between different countries are important and we will return to this aspect later, when we analyse the distribution of assistance.

These figures, however, give you an idea of the average impact of external assistance on the resources of developing countries. What is clear is that, even if the objective of 1 per cent of GNP, fixed for the donor countries was achieved in 1980, the external aid could not represent more than 4.5 per cent of GDP of the assisted countries.

B. The amount of assistance to education

Table 4, established by OECD, shows for DAC countries the amounts of public bilateral assistance for education, from 1964 to 1968.

In 1967 educational aid ($563,000,000) then represented about 11 per cent of total public aid for those countries. The geographical distribution of countries receiving aid was approximately as follows:

Africa	54 per cent
Latin America	15 " "
Asia	22 " "
Europe	3 " "
Oceania	1 " "
Others	5 " "
Total	100 per cent

On the other hand, of the $1,000 million of multilateral aid received by the developing countries in 1967, a maximum of 13 per cent to 14 per cent was actually spent on the development of education and on training.

In the same year, therefore, the total amount of aid to education, including part of the contributions from socialist countries, must have been approximately $820 million.(1) If one compares this amount with total educational expenditures in Africa, Latin America and Asia ($9,000 million in 1965)(2) which amounts to about $11,000 million in 1967, one can see that assistance in this field reaches on average about 8 per cent of total expenditures.

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(1) Including assistance provided by certain private sources (Ford Foundation, etc.).

(2) Source: Unesco, Preparatory papers for the Second United Nations Development Decade, Document DDG/69/7, July, 1969 (not including China (Mainland), North Korea and North Viet-Nam).

Table 4. Bilateral public aid to education from the DAC countries to developing countries, 1964-1968 (estimates) ($ US million)

	1964	1965	1966	1967	1968
Investments:					
Donations	60	100	70	61	46
Loans	30	20	10	36	32
Total	90	120	80	97	78
Technical assistance	410	440	520	563	632
Total	500	560	600	660	710

Source: Estimates of OECD Secretariat prepared for a study on aid to education (to be published).

Note: The above estimates are based on a definition of aid to education which for certain donors comprises all the teaching and training activities in agriculture, health, public administration, etc.

However, as already indicated by the percentage distribution of aid by DAC countries, all regions of the world do not benefit equally from the international aid. In some African countries, aid may average 20 per cent or 25 per cent of the educational and training expenditures.(1) This percentage is much lower in Latin American or Asian countries.

Such are the basic data which allow us to evaluate on the one hand the efforts of donor countries and on the other the relative importance of their aid to developing countries.

PART III - IMPROVEMENT OF THE EFFICIENCY OF INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE TO EDUCATION

International assistance cannot take the place of the national authorities to remedy the previously mentioned inadequacies, imbalances and inadaptations, but it has very serious responsibilities in this field:

(i) International organizations are the only ones able to promote, on a world-wide basis, a development strategy within the framework of which - after the necessary adaptations - the objectives of educational systems can be attained.

(ii) International assistance, in general, plays a large part in the orientation of educational policies in developing countries.

From the first point, it is obvious that any serious study of educational policies can only be worthwhile if it is based on a preliminary study of the objectives and means of promoting economic and social development. Though this problem does not come within the scope of the main object of this lecture, we should ask ourselves: From the point of view of international assistance, is there any such preliminary study?

A. International assistance in search of a strategy

(a) The 'gap' between world-wide prospects and projects

The Preparatory Committee(2) for the Second UN Development Decade is studying the main trends of the international stretegy of development which will be submitted to the UN General Assembly in autumn 1970:

(i) gross annual rate of growth of 6 per cent minimum;

(ii) investment increase at the annual rate of 0.5 per cent of GNP (objective: 20 per cent of GNP in 1980),

(iii) development of trade and especially of exports, etc.,

(iv) increase of international assistance (1 per cent of GNP) etc.

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(1) Sources: Series of African Monographs, Paris, Unesco/IIEP, 1966-68.

(2) With the assistance of the 'Centre for Planning, Projections and Policies' (of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the UN) and of the Tinbergen Committee.

With this in view, an overall set of measures at a world-wide level has been suggested: development of the organization of world markets(1), new policies regarding custom duties, etc.

However, these are very general objectives which should ultimately be integrated in the various national plans. The question to be asked is: How far can international assistance, and especially international organizations, co-ordinate their own action and help Member States to determine their development policy?

The report of the UN Joint Inspection Unit in September 1969(2) is rather sceptical on this subject; it outlines the 'gap' which exists between 'overall considerations on a world-wide level' (Second Development Decade, Indicative World Plan of the FAO) and daily action (project by project); this report suggests concrete remedies, especially concerning increased information and the making of studies at national level.

Such a view is confirmed:

(i) by the report of the Pearson Commission(3): 'The international organizations must be put in a position to provide more leadership and direction and to make development assistance into a genuinely international effort' and, further on 'the international aid system today ... lacks direction and coherence';

(ii) by the Jackson report(4): 'The UN development system has tried to wage a war on want for many years with very little organized "brain" to guide it'.

In other words, to synthetise this criticism, it can be said that the UN organizations, especially UNDP, spend the best part of their meagre resources financing a large number of projects but that, for lack of sufficient means of information and adequate preliminary studies, their projects do not fit a strategy which otherwise would have the following three-fold result:

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(1) This is a fundamental preliminary to any development planning policy.

(2) M. Bertrand, Report on Programming and Budgeting in the UN Family, September, 1969.

(3) Pp. 21 and 22.

(4) Vol. I, pp. 16 and 27.

(i) valorize assistance projects,

(ii) facilitate co-ordination of multilateral and bilateral projects (according to defined structures, especially within a national framework),

(iii) valorize the Member States' own efforts.

(b) The elaboration of a development strategy

Independently of the general objectives of development of the Second Development Decade and of the fundamental measures which should accompany them on a world-wide level, and independently of general economic considerations there should be a careful study on each country of each group of countries sharing related characteristics, prior to the initiating of 'projects'.

The President of the World Bank is well aware of the extent of this problam, hence his declaration at the last meeting of governors(1):

"We want to seek out those projects, those procedures, those policies that will assist economies as a whole to get into the mainstream of self-generating growth and progress" and, further on, "what we need - and what we must design - is a comprehensive strategy that will constitute an overall plan into which particular policies and individual projects can be fitted as logical, integral parts".

Thus, in spite of the progress made in economic science, the methods and principles of international action are still, according to Mr. McNamara, in the 'research' and 'conception' status.

The IBRD has decided to tackle this immense problem(2); certainly, it has the means to do so. We may ask ourselves whether it would not be worthwhile for the UNDP to devote a larger portion of its resources to such study so as to play the part it is entitled to play in the elaboration of an assistance to development policy.

B. International assistance to education cannot escape this need

Can the recognized need for overall study of development problems peculiar to each country or group of countries be applied to education? We must agree with the DAC which says:

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(1) Mr. McNamara's speech on 29 September 1969, p. 5.

(2) Ibid, p. 24.

"In each of these areas, donors have come to appreciate that their educational aid programmes must be re-assessed and redefined on the basis of a more comprehensive understanding of country developmental objectives. Each country situation must be viewed as a whole, in contrast with the past heavy reliance on the project approach ... all of these issues were found by donors to require intensified consultation and co-ordination among themselves and in each country, between the donors and the recipients."(1)

(a) The traditional aspect and the new aspect of international assistance to education

Such considerations have, for some time now, led us to distinguish two aspects in the objectives of international assistance.

(i) Traditional aspect: This is the assistance given by donor countries in various forms (building, teaching materials, teachers, scholarships, etc.) to promote the desired development of the educational system including the organization, structure(2) and content which, however, may not be fundamentally changed.

(ii) New aspect: Help developing countries to elaborate their educational policy in the general framework of their development, to define quantitative priorities and modalities of qualitative action (new teaching media, programmes, methods, etc.).

As we have seen, bilateral assistance provides the greater part of traditional assistance but, failing a more rational and scientific strategy of educational development for developing countries, what is the real worth of this assistance? It is felt everywhere that new norms of assistance are required.

But how can each country giving bilateral assistance, independently of the others, devise a policy? DAC realizes that co-ordination is vital here.

(b) The primary responsibilities of international organizations - essentially Unesco - in this new aspect of assistance

Since the beginning of the 1960's, Unesco has been conscious of this new and major aspect of international assistance. This awareness is obvious in the increasing importance given to 'educational planning':

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(1) Source: OECD, op cit. p.144

(2) Often inherited from the former colonial regime.

(i) creation of the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) in 1963 for training and research;

(ii) creation, within the Secretariat, of the Department of Planning and Financing of Education(1);

(iii) progressive development of Regional Centres for planning and administration of education in Asia, Africa, Latin America and the Arab countries(2);

(iv) increased number of missions, permanent educational planning experts, etc.

The 'educational planning' concept is not endowed with magical power; it is a stimulus to the rationalization of quantitative and qualitative development of the educational systems by means of plans. It stimulates thinking, study and research of new ways.

Undoubtedly, Unesco cannot hold the monopoly in this sector; each country can and should make the maximum effort itself, but conversely, only an international organization like Unesco, having the confidence of developing countries, can, through multiple efforts contribute to the definite and elaboration of not only one strategy of educational development but successive strategies which could be adopted by developing countries at various stages of economic and social development. As the Bertrand Report states, this implies very serious and frequently revised studies on the problems and difficulties encountered by individual countries or groups of countries.

We have mentioned co-ordination of international bilateral and multilateral assistance. It looks as if this is an essentially political problem. In fact, if Unesco could take full responsibility for the technical tasks within its competence in the elaboration of educational development policies, it would thus contribute, in this way, to give a unity of direction to and co-ordinate the action of all donor countries.

The development of a real practice of educational planning essentially implies:

(i) an effort towards training national executives,

(ii) an effort towards training international and bilateral experts,

(iii) concomitant effort towards Unesco's own research on all types of problems,

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(1) Technical preparation of UNDP and IBRD projects.

(2) Recently, three of them have been included in the new structure of regional offices.

(iv) a knowledge of the results of research and experiments currently in process in different countries or organized by the different systems of aid, in view of compiling a synthesis and distributing it to all planning organizations

Is the present effort sufficient? Of course, we are not criticizing the choices which Unesco is compelled to make within the restricted limits of its budget, but it must be recognized that any action concerning this educational planning policy in the line of training and research, however deserving and promising, does not for the moment meet the needs.

Some of us may think that, at this stage, we know enough on the subject and consequently we can initiate action without prior research. But, in fact, this is far from true. Of course, we should apply what we know - or think we know - as quickly as possible, but, as suggested by Mr. McNamara, President of the World Bank, in the general field of development, a constant and patient effort should be applied in the 'research' and 'conception' of 'principles' and 'methods'.

C. The main guidelines in the new aspects of international assistance to education

What are the most urgent fields of action? On another level we must intensify the efforts undertaken in the following:

(i) Training

The aim in view is to create, as quickly as possible, national teams able to conceive and initiate a rational policy for developing the educational system.

This effort towards creating national specialists does not imply that we can, before a long time, dispense with the simultaneous training of bilateral or multilateral experts.

In this field, there should be close co-operation between Unesco and the various bilateral agencies.

(ii) Research(1)

At the level of international organizations, especially Unesco, there is no question of undertaking a large amount of fundamental research but rather it is possible to carry out applied research prior to decision-making. As we have said, there should be world-wide research on the development of educational systems; Unesco, independently of its own work, should attempt to analyse, synthetise and circulate all results which may facilitate action in the Member States.

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(1) Research has a two-fold role: support training and prepare for action.

Among the major research to be undertaken(1), we have the following:

(a) adaptation of the contents and methods of general, professional and technical education to the needs of developing societies, especially to the evolution of the rural sector;

(b) the planned development of adult education and the creation of new training methods;

(c) the adaptation of the content of higher education and the vocational guidance of students to avoid intellectual unemployment and the brain drain;

(d) the control, experimentation and diffusion of pedagogical innovation(2);

(e) studies on cost: in this field, we have had successful results in the standardization of building costs. It has not been the same with recurrent costs and lack of rigorous analysis has frequently led to waste of scarce resources;

(f) studies regarding the various possible methods of finance (a financing crisis may arise in the course of the Second Decade);

(g) the modernization of methods of management and administration, etc.

(iii) Creation of experimental schools

The research effort should be accompanied by an attempt to create different experimental schools (new types of teacher-training schools, new types of rural schools) - the new structures of which would progressively be applied on a general basis.

Conclusion: The distribution of assistance

Of course, these new or future methods of action of international assistance do not rule out the financing of the so-called 'traditional' assistance.

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(1) For further information on this subject, refer to a new IIEP publication by W.J. Platt, Research in Educational Planning: Notes on Emergent Needs, Paris, 1970.

(2) Provided pedagogical innovation does not act as a deterrent to improving the traditional educational sector (manuals, textbooks etc.) which, for the moment, are the most useful.

Even if more efficient use is made of national resources, even if these resources increase as a result of a better adapted finance policy, the needs of developing countries are so great that international assistance should not be reduced but rather increase in the course of the following decade.

Thus the problem will always remain of establishing possible criteria for the distribution of assistance among the various developing countries. In this regard, we can say that the distribution of international assistance is not altogether satisfactory. Development attracts assistance and the countries which have made the best use of aid receive a larger part of it according to the well-known theory of the 'absorption capacity'. Consequently, assistance favours dynamic economies which are already relatively rich.

In the educational field, the allocation criteria based on the 'absorption capacity' are even more open to criticism and present tendencies ought to be modified. With this in view, the allocation of assistance should be based on individual development plans (including education) and thus highlight the real educational requirements of the poorer countries.